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# Magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO core–shell composites constructed from MOF-based materials and their photocatalytic properties under visible light



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#### ABSTRACT

Magnetic Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @C/Cu and Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @CuO nanocomposites with a core/shell structure have been successfully synthesized via direct calcinations of magnetic Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 in different atmosphere (N $_2$  and air). The morphology, structure, magnetic and porous properties of the as-synthesized nanocomposites were characterized by using scanning electron microscope (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), vibration sample magnetometer (VSM), and N $_2$  sorption–desorption isotherms. The results show that the nanocomposite materials consist of a Fe $_3$ O $_4$  core and a C/Cu (or CuO) shell. Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @C/Cu nanocomposites show more powerful photocatalytic activity for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) under visible light irradiation in the presence of H $_2$ O $_2$  in comparison with Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @CuO nanocomposites and the most common photocatalyst titanium dioxide (TiO $_2$ ), as well as the recently developed organic semiconductor graphitic carbon nitride (g-C $_3$ N $_4$ ). Meanwhile, the catalyst is stable during the reaction and the high Ms value (39.2 emu g $_1$ ) of the as-prepared magnetic composites is favorable for the separation and recycling of the catalyst from the reaction media after the catalytic reactions.

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# 1. Introduction

Over the past decades, size- and morphology-controlled syntheses of metal and metal oxides nanoparticles have been an extremely active area in the development of material technology not only due to their unique size- and morphology-induced physical and chemical properties that differ greatly from those of bulk materials, but also because of their various potential applications in industry and technique areas [1-3]. Among various metallic and oxide materials, copper nanoparticles (Cu NPs) and their oxides are of particular interest due to their wide applications such as magnetic storage media, solar energy transformation, electronics, sensors, batteries and catalysis [4-9]. Numerous methods such as vacuum vapor deposition (VVD), solid-vapor phase growth (SVG), microemulsion, and hydrothermal synthesis [10-15] have been developed to fabricate Cu and its oxides with various sizes and morphologies. However, to date, synthetic routes in many reports are requiring numerous and complex starting materials, reducing agents, and special additives. The intrinsic properties of Cu and its oxides, such as narrow band gap, low toxicity, good

environmental acceptability, low price, and abundant resources, make it a potential candidate for photocatalytic applications. For instance Li et al. fabricated CuO nanosheets on Cu foils showing high photocatalytic efficiency on the degradation dyes [16]. Zhou et al. synthesized Cu<sub>2</sub>O/Cu photocatalysts of heterostructure revealing excellent properties in degrading organic dyes PR, MB and MO [17]. Yu et al. reported a highly symmetric 26-facet polyhedral microcrystals of Cu<sub>2</sub>O exhibiting good photocatalytic properties for degradation of methyl orange [18]. However, the synthesized particles are difficult to remove from solution after the photocatalytic reaction, which may increase the cost of industrial applications and repollute the treated water.

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) built from metal ions and polyfunctional organic ligands have attracted considerable attention due to their intriguing structures and potential application in gas storage, molecule separation, chemical sensing, catalysis, drug delivery [19–25]. MOFs with nano-sized features and supramolecular structures are ideal candidates for precursors in solid state calcination processes to fabricate nano-sized metal and metal oxides with novel structures and properties. For instance, Lin et al. used MIL-101 as a template to synthesize of octahedral Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite for hydrogen production from water under visible light [26]. Jung et al. obtained ZnO with ring morphology from zincbased MOF [27]. Cho et al. synthesized Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with rod shape from Fe-MIL-88 [28].

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Herein, we describe the synthesis of  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$  and  $Fe_3O_4@CuO$  composites via direct calcination of magnetic  $Fe_3O_4@HKUST$ -1 core–shell structures under a variety of atmospheric gaseous conditions ( $N_2$  or air).  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$  possesses a relative large surface area ( $31.06\,\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$ ). Remarkably, the  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$  composites show powerful photocatalytic activity in the visible band for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) in comparison with  $Fe_3O_4@CuO$  particles, and the most common photocatalyst titanium dioxide ( $TiO_2$ ), as well as the more recently developed organic semiconductor graphitic carbon nitride (g- $C_3N_4$ ) [29]. Furthermore, the photocatalysts can be separated from the reaction medium under magnetic field in a few seconds and be reused for 5 cycles without obvious loss of its reactivity under visible light irradiation.

#### 2. Experimental

#### 2.1. Chemicals

Benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid ( $H_3BTC$ ) was purchased from Aldrich. Ferric trichloride hexahydrate, cupric acetate monohydrate and mercaptoacetic acid (MAA) were purchased from Sinopharm Shanghai Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd., China. All the other chemicals used in this work were of analytical grade, obtained from commercial suppliers, and used without further purification unless otherwise noted.

#### 2.2. Characterizations

The powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns of the prepared samples were collected using an X-ray diffractometer with Cu target (36 kV, 25 mA). Scanning electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electron microscope (TEM) analyses were conducted with a Hitachi S4800 scanning electron microscope operated at 5 kV and a JEOL JEM2100 transmission electron microscope at 200 kV, respectively. Nitrogen adsorption—desorption isotherms were obtained at 77 K on a Micromeritics ASAP 2020M+C analyzer. UV—vis diffuse reflectance data were collected with a spectrophotometer (UV–2550, Shimadzu) equipped with an integrated sphere, and BaSO<sub>4</sub> was used as a reference sample.

# 2.3. Synthesis of magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu nanocomposites

Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 microspheres were synthesized in accordance with the previously reported procedure [30]. Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 (0.5 g) was placed in a ceramic boat. Then the ceramic boat was put at the middle of a horizontal quartz tube. After that the quartz tube was calcined up to 500 °C under high purity nitrogen (99.999%) atmosphere at a heating rate of 20 °C/min and then held at 500 °C for 5 h. After slow cooling to room temperature, the product was taken out and washed several times with distilled water and absolute ethanol, and finally dried in a vacuum at 60 °C for 5 h.

#### 2.4. Synthesis of magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO nanoparticles

All the procedures were similar to the synthesis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu except that the sample was calcined in air atmosphere.

#### 2.5. Photocatalytic degradation of MB

The photocatalytic activities of magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO nanocomposites were evaluated by the photodegradation of MB under a Xe lamp (XQ-500W, China) irradiation in open air and at room temperature. To measure the photocatalytic activity under UV-vis irradiation, a 420 nm cut-off filter was used to provide the visible light in this work. The distance between the

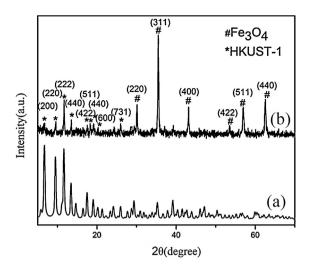


Fig. 1. PXRD patterns of (a) simulated HKUST-1 and (b) Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 core-shell microspheres.

light source and the beaker containing reaction mixture was fixed at 15 cm. Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @C/Cu or Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @CuO nanocomposites photocatalyst (50 mg) was put into 100 mL of MB aqueous solution (20 ppm) in a 250 mL beaker to which 3% H $_2$ O $_2$  (0.5 mL) was added. The reaction suspensions were sampled at fixed time intervals and immediately magnetic separated for analysis during the reaction.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of the products

The crystalline nature and composition of the as-synthesized products were first characterized by PXRD. Fig. 1 presents PXRD of the simulated HKUST-1 [31] and Fe3O4@HKUST-1. The diffraction peaks and relative intensities of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 core-shell microspheres in Fig. 1b can be readily indexed to crystalline Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [JCPDS NO. 19-0629] and HKUST-1, respectively, indicating that the composition is composed of magnetite and HKUST-1. The weak intensity of HKUST-1 diffraction peaks can be attributed to the low thickness of the HKUST-1 shell as confirmed by TEM results shown below. All the diffraction peaks of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are well retained regardless whether the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 core-shell microspheres were calcined in N2 or in air atmosphere, as shown in Fig. 2. Furthermore, the hkl faces including (111), (200), (220), (311), (222) of the synthesized product (Fig. S1) in the N2 atmosphere match well with the result of the reported Cu [JCPDS NO. 04-8436], indicating that the HKUST-1 shell transformed into copper via calcination. The formation of Cu rather than CuO can be attributed to the fact that the organic ligands in the HKUST-1 shell were decomposed at high temperature into carbon and different kinds of gases including hydrogen, carbon monoxide, and benzene, together with other fragments from the incomplete decomposed ligands [32-34] which have strong reducibility. As expected, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO nanoparticles were obtained by calcining Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 in air atmosphere, which was demonstrated by the crystal faces (110) (002) (200) (020)(202)(113) of CuO [JCPDS NO. 05-0661] as shown in Fig. 2b.

The particle sizes and the morphologies of the samples were examined by using SEM and TEM. Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 in the shape of microsphere was obtained as can be seen from the SEM images (Fig. S2), and the finally formed Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 magnetic microspheres are composed of a Fe $_3$ O $_4$  core (the black part) of about 200 nm and a HKUST-1 shell of around 80 nm, as demonstrated by TEM images (see Fig. 3a), clearly demonstrating the formation of a core–shell structure. Furthermore, the shape of the

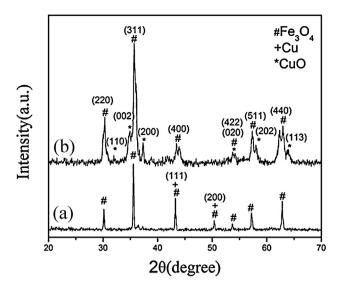
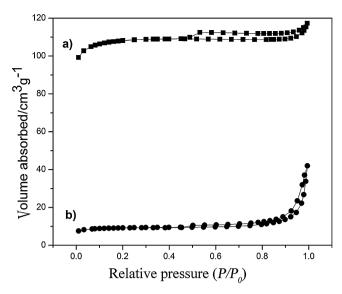


Fig. 2. PXRD patterns of nanocomposites obtained by calcination of Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @HKUST-1 (a) in nitrogen atmosphere and (b) in air.

product remain unchanged and the materials still keep a core–shell structure regardless of type of the atmosphere used during the calcinations process (Fig. 3). The thickness of the C/Cu shell in  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu nanospheres reduces to 50 nm in comparison with that of MOF shell in  $Fe_3O_4$ @HKUST-1 magnetic nanospheres. As can be see from Fig. 3d the Cu nanoparticles embedded in the carbon with a size ranging from 6 to 10 nm. This carbon protects the Cu nanoparticle surfaces free from the metal oxide impurity and acts as a barrier which prevents the particles from agglomerating. However, a significant decrease of shell thickness was observed after the calcinations of  $Fe_3O_4$ @HKUST-1 nanospheres in air. The thickness of CuO shell in  $Fe_3O_4$ @CuO composites is sharply decreased to 10 nm. This may be attributed to the fact that a part of carbon decomposed by organic ligands was still kept in  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu,

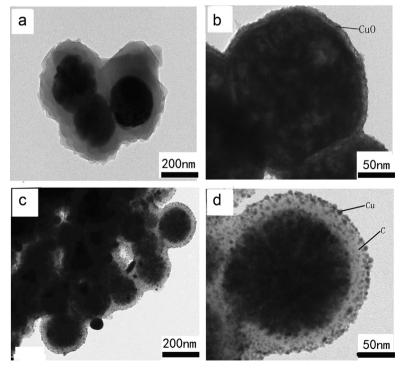


**Fig. 4.** N<sub>2</sub> sorption–desorption isotherms of (a) the as-prepared Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 and (b) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu.

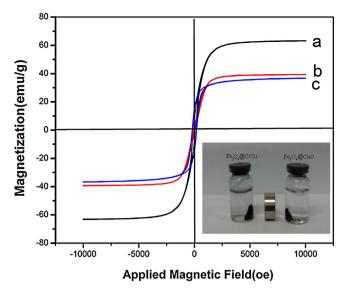
whereas shell of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO nanospheres is mainly composed of CuO as confirmed by Fig. 3b.

The porous properties of magnetic samples were investigated by measuring the nitrogen adsorption isotherms, as shown in Fig. 4. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller surface area ( $S_{\rm BET}$ ) of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 is determined to be 361.92 m²/g. Compared with the other photocatalysts [35,36], the obtained Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu composite possesses a relative large surface area of 31.06 m²/g. It should be noted that  $S_{\rm BET}$  of the products calcinated in air was as low as 0.0233 m²/g, which imply Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO composite is non-porous.

To evaluate the magnetic behavior of the nanocomposites, the magnetic measurements were carried out at 300 K. The magnetization saturation values (Ms) of the core/shell Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO were measured to be 36.5, 39.2 and



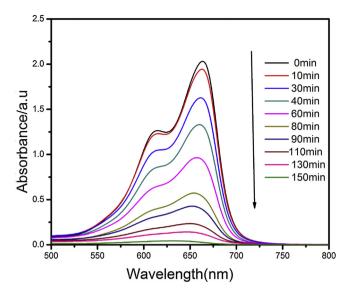
**Fig. 3.** TEM images of (a) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 core-shell microspheres, (b) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO, (c and d) Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu.



**Fig. 5.** Hysteresis loops recorded at 300 K of (a)  $Fe_3O_4$ @CuO, (b)  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu and (c) the as-prepared  $Fe_3O_4$ @HKUST-1 (inset: separation of  $Fe_3O_4$ @CuO and  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu from solution under an external magnetic field).

 $63.1~{\rm emu~g^{-1}}$ , respectively, suggesting a high magnetite content in the products (Fig. 5). The magnetic separability of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO was tested in water by placing a magnet near the glass bottle (the inset of Fig. 5). The particles were attracted toward the magnet within few seconds, clearly demonstrating the magnetic properties of the core/shell nanocomposites.

The optical properties of the samples were investigated by UV-vis diffuse reflectances spectroscopy. Fig. 6a shows the UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO. As revealed from Fig. 6a, the calcined composites showed broad absorption in the visible region. The band gap energy  $(E_{\sigma})$  was estimated from the intercept of the tangents to the plots of  $(Ahv)^{1/2}$ vs photon energy [37] (Fig. 6b), and the calculated  $E_g$  value of  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$  is around 1.75 eV. Compared with  $E_g$  values of  $TiO_2$ (3.2 eV) [38], g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (2.7 eV) [39] and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO (1.82 eV) (Fig. S3),  $E_g$  value of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu is much lower, suggesting that the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu nanocomposites could sufficiently absorb visible light and may possess good photocatalytic properties when irradiated under visible light. The attribution of visible-light absorption may be due to the surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect of Cu NPs as will be discussed below [40,41]. Metal nanocrystals can exhibit the collective oscillation of the conduction electrons upon



**Fig. 7.** UV-vis absorption spectra of MB solution with Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu particles at different time intervals under visible light.

interaction with electromagnetic radiation, which can effectively promote visible light absorption [42–44].

## 3.2. Photocatalytic degradation of MB

The UV-vis spectra of MB aqueous solution in the presence of Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @C/Cu nanocomposites under visible-light irradiation ( $\lambda$  > 420 nm) at room temperature for different durations to which 3% H $_2$ O $_2$  (0.5 mL) was added are shown in Fig. 7. The main absorption peak at 664 nm corresponding to the MB molecule decreases rapidly with extension of the exposure time, and completely disappears after irradiation for about 150 min.

In many studies,  $H_2O_2$  has been employed as a green additive to enhance the photocatalytic activities of photocatalysts, such as  $TiO_2$  [45], CdS [46], and ZnO [47]. The addition of  $H_2O_2$  was necessary for improving the photocatalytic activity of the core–shell  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu nanocomposites, as shown in Fig. 8. The  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu nanocomposites exhibit low photocatalytic activity in the absence of  $H_2O_2$ . However, the degradation rate increased when increasing of the amount of  $H_2O_2$  from 0.05 mL to 1 mL. This may caused by  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu nanocomposites cannot gain sufficient energy to be captured by oxygen molecules that there are little amount of  $O_2$  was reduced by photoinduced conduction band electrons (e<sup>-</sup>)

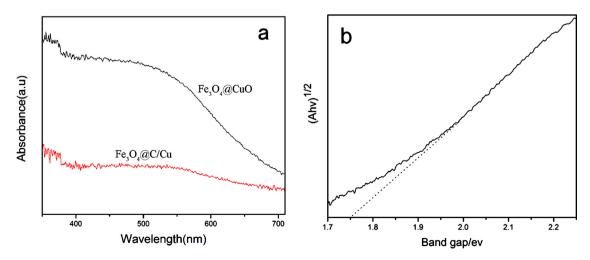


Fig. 6. (a) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectrum of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO. (b) Plots of  $(Ahv)^{1/2}$  vs photon energy of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu.

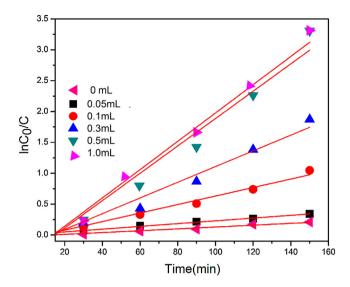


Fig. 8. Photodegradation of MB with 50 mg Fe $_3$ O $_4$ @C/Cu particles in the presence of various amounts of H $_2$ O $_2$  under visible light.

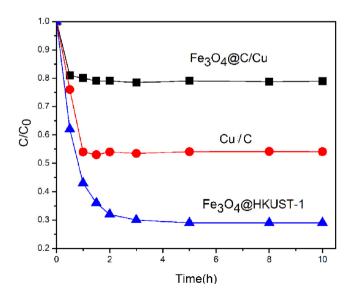
of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu to produce active oxygen species which are important for the photocatalysis. The addition of  $H_2O_2$  can enhance the amount of the active species which mainly due to that  $H_2O_2$  are much easier to be reduced and can be converted to \*OH radicals after accepting the electrons or photolytically split directly to produce \*OH which can accelerate the reaction [49,50].

The photodegradation reactions of the pollutants exhibited a modified pseudo-first-order kinetic model with respect to the irradiation time. The results were nearly consistent with the linear equation [48]:

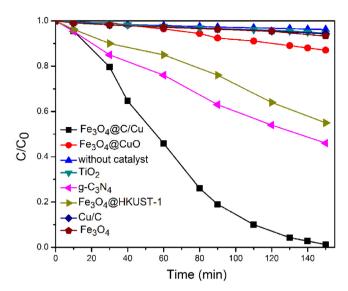
$$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right) = kt$$

where  $C_0$  (mg/L) is the initial concentration of MB dye, C is the concentration of pollutant at time t, and k is the rate constant (min<sup>-1</sup>).

Before photocatalysis, the porous materials were magnetically stirred under dark in the presence of  $H_2O_2$  to ensure the adsorption/desorption equilibrium. As can be seen from Fig. 9, the  $Fe_3O_4$ @C/Cu can speedy got to a adsorption equilibrium state in 30 min, the calcination of HKUST-1 in  $N_2$  have been reported by Bai et al. [51], and we got a product of Cu/C (see PXRD pattern in Fig. S4)



**Fig. 9.** The absorption of MB in the 50 mg porous materials in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.



**Fig. 10.** Photodegradation of different catalytic conditions under visible light irradiation

with a surface area of  $120\,\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$  at  $500\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  (Fig. S5), which can reach adsorption equilibrium in 1 h. For the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 composites, the adsorption capacity toward MB and the equilibrium time were both increased, which mainly due to the high surface area (361.92 m²/g). At the same time, no photocatalysis was detected under dark for these three catalysts after reaching adsorption equilibrium.

The photocatalytic activities of all the samples obtained were studied via MB photodegradation experiments under visible light irradiation, as shown in Fig. 10. No photolysis of MB was observed after 150 min visible light irradiation in the absence of catalyst, clearly demonstrating that MB is relatively stable under visible light irradiation on the condition that there is no photocatalyst involved. The TiO<sub>2</sub> powder played no role in degrading MB under visible light irradiation, since TiO<sub>2</sub> cannot be excited by visible light irradiation. The extent of decolourization of MB was only 13% under the photocatalysis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO composite, which means they possess low photocatalytic activity. Similar to previously reported results [29,52], g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> showed a good performance in photodegradation under visible light in the present work. However, it was obvious to find that the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu particles showed much greater degradation efficiency than g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> under identical conditions of exposure to visible light. For comparison, the photocatalysis of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1, and the Cu/C composites were also conducted. Both Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microspheres and Cu/C composites show low photocatalytic activity under the visible light even in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Although Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 has a relatively good catalytic performance in the experiments, the HKUST-1 shell is not stable in water as confirmed by the PXRD (Fig.S6).

On the basis of the obtained results in the present work, a possible photocatalytic mechanism was proposed to clarify the higher photocatalytic activity of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu heterostructures than pure Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microsphere and Cu/C composites in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The crucial obstacle limiting the efficiency of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> semiconductor photocatalyst is the high rate of charge-carrier recombination which maybe due to the relatively large penetration depth of photons and the short mean free paths of charge carriers that result in a majority of the charge carriers lost to recombination before they can reach the semiconductor surface and perform photochemical reactions [53]. And it is well known that metal NPs such as gold, silver and copper NPs strongly absorb visible-light due to the so-called surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect [54–56]. Visible light absorption heats the electrons and excites them from

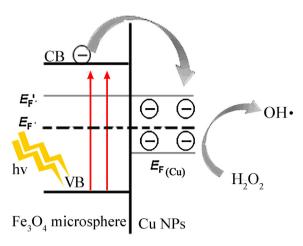
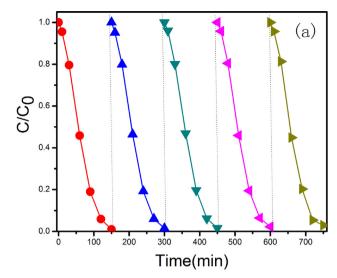
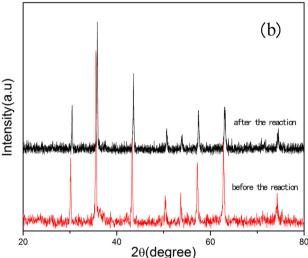


Fig. 11. Charge distribution between  $Fe_3O_4$  microsphere and Cu NPs. EF and EF refer to Fermi levels of  $Fe_3O_4$  before and after attaining equilibrium.

ground state to higher energy levels, the probability that a conduction electron participates in chemical reactions involving electron transfer is greater [57]. The existence of Cu NPs on the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microsphere core causes the Fermi level to equilibrate, which attains an energy level close to the conduction band of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> semiconductor [58]. On the other words, Cu NPs possess a low Fermi level, which can serve as a good electron acceptor for facilitating quick electron transfer from Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microsphere under visible-light irradiation. Therefore, the photoexcited electrons can be rapidly transferred to Cu NPs, and the photoinduced holes still locate on Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microsphere, which promote the effective separation of photoexcited electron-hole pairs and decrease the probability of electron-hole recombination. The high concentration of holes on Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microsphere could significantly accelerate the photocatalytic reaction rates of organic dye degradation. On the other hand, the photocatalytic process is known to be related to the adsorption and desorption of molecules onto the surface of catalysts [59]. Carbon in the composites could adsorb the organic compounds from the aqueous solution and transfer it to the photocatalyst surface [60-62]. Additionally, carbon may carry out the role of sensitizer. The excited photosensitizer can inject an electron into the conduction band of the photocatalyst. However, under visible light irradiation, only a very small number of semiconductor@carbon/metal hetero-photocatalysts can gain sufficient energy to be captured by oxygen molecules [41], nevertheless, it can be functioned by reducing H2O2 into OH• (Fig. 11). As a result, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu magnetic core/shell microspheres exhibit excellent photocatalytic activity for degradation of MB under visible-light irradiation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

For the purpose of the practical applications, it is necessary to evaluate the long-term stability of photocatalyst during reaction. Stability tests were therefore performed by executing recycling reactions five times for the photodegradation of MB over Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu under visible light irradiation. No obvious loss of the photocatalytic activity of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu catalyst was observed for MB decolorization (Fig. 12a), and the maximum degradation degree of MB is all close to 100% after five cycles (Fig.S7). Furthermore, PXRD patterns of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@Cu before and after the reaction are shown in Fig. 12b, it can be seen that the position of the diffraction peaks remain unchanged with slightly decreasing of the peak intensities, suggesting the catalyst is relatively stable during the reaction. Meanwhile, the high Ms values of the as-prepared magnetic composites were favorable for the separation and recycling of the catalyst from the reaction media after the catalytic reactions.





**Fig. 12.** (a) Catalyst recycling in the degradation of MB of  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$ . (b) PXRD patterns for  $Fe_3O_4@C/Cu$  before and after the reaction.

# 4. Conclusions

In summary, we demonstrate a simple synthetic route for the synthesis of core-shell-structured magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu and Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO nanocomposites via direct calcination of magnetic Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@HKUST-1 in different atmosphere (N<sub>2</sub> and air). Compared with other reported methods, the advantage of this synthetic route lies in its simplicity including easy synthesis, environmental friendliness with use of a benign magnetic MOF precursor, as well as without using any reductives. Meanwhile, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu possesses a relative large surface area. This synthetic method presented here can be extended to the synthesis of other porous magnetic metal or metallic oxide from MOF based materials. Remarkably, the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu magnetic core/shell microspheres exhibit excellent photocatalytic activity for degradation of MB in comparison with Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@CuO, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and TiO<sub>2</sub> powders under visible-light irradiation in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, the magnetic nature of the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@C/Cu magnetic core/shell structured photocatalyst promotes its easy separation from the reaction media by simple application of an external magnetic field, and the photocatalyst could be reused for 5 cycles without obvious loss of its reactivity under visible light irradiation. The simple procedures for both preparation and the recovery of the photocatalyst and excellent recycling efficiency of the catalyst make it an ideal photocatalytic system for the photodegradation of organic pollutants under visible light from waste water in industry.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb. 2013.08.019.

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